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# The Configurable, Highly Parallel (CHiP) Approach for Signal Processing Applications

by

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## Introduction

Between the conception of a real time signal processor and its functional VLSI realization there is an enormous amount of effort devoted to designing, revising, optimizing and testing. Since the process is cumulative -- later work builds on previous work -- and since the activity becomes progressively more detailed, more constrained and more exacting, it follows that *the global design parameters should be fully explored.* Global design decisions, when correct, can have a greater effect on performance than many local optimizations. When the decisions are wrong, they can cause continual difficulty. Accordingly, we propose a design methodology based on the Configurable, Highly Parallel (CHiP) architecture family [1] that focuses on exploring global design parameters and is especially well suited to the VLSI implementation of signal processing systems.

The characteristic that distinguishes digital signal processing design problems from other large VLSI design problems, e.g., microprocessor design, is that the former tend to require the assembly of a large number of identical components while the latter often require the assembly of a diverse collection of components. In terms of the widely discussed

hierarchical design methodology [2-4], this distinction means that signal processors are characterized by a shallow hierarchy rather than a deep hierarchy. The emphasis on decomposition in the hierarchical design methodology with its resulting deep hierarchy provides less leverage for signa' processing design problems. Our CHiP computer methodology, though hierarchical, emphasizes the layout of homogeneous components and should provide greater leverage for signal processor design situations.

The methodology is not a cookbook procedure. That is, there is not a sequence of definite steps which if followed from start to finish result in a real time signal processor. But there are steps: the designer programs the algorithm for a CHiP computer, tests it, assesses the design, revises it, programs the subparts, tests them, assesses their design, revises them and, finally, specializes the entire system for silicon implementation.

In order to organize our presentation of the methodology, we will develop a design as a running example. Our problem will be to design a pipelined, eight point Fast Fourier Transform processor. The reader need not be acquainted with the FFT, since our intent is not to produce a practical device. Rather we are using the problem as a context in which to focus on the design activity.

**Problem Statement**

Naturally, the first step in any design situation is to understand the problem. For our running FFT example this can be conveniently stated with a schematic diagram, (Figure 1). Each processing element takes two inputs, $B$ and $B'$ and computes two weighted sums, $B + QB'$ and $B - QB'$. (See Stone [5] for exact details.) Our assumptions are that the

processors receive data bit-serially from off the chip, that the structure is pipelined and that the resulting circuit is to be placed on a single chip. From these assumptions, we conclude that we will need to place twelve processors each capable of multiplying by a constant and adding, and that the chip will require sixteen pins for data in addition to power, ground and any control lines.
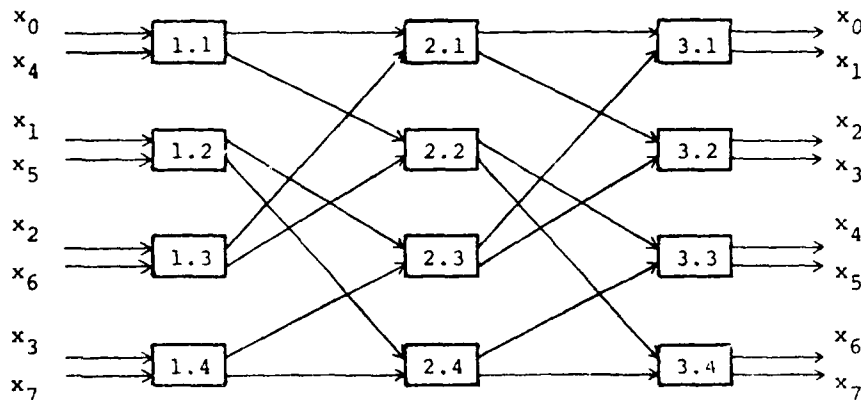
Figure 1. Pipelined FFT schematic.

## Programming the Algorithm

The next step in the methodology is to program the algorithm for a CHiP computer. The purpose is to establish an unambiguous specification of the problem and to begin initial exploration of the layout, timing and input/output constraints. Before programming our FFT example, we must introduce CHiP machines.

A CHiP computer is one of a family of architectures specialized for "fine-grained" parallelism and efficient VLSI implementation. The main component of the architecture (and the only one of interest here*) is the *switch lattice*. This is a homogeneous array of programmable switches

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*Other, more thorough descriptions of the CHiP machine have been given, but they focus on its use as a general purpose parallel processor [1, 6]. Our description here has been specialized to its use as a design abstraction.

and data paths with processing elements (PEs) placed at regular intervals. Figure 2 illustrates schematic diagrams of two switch lattices. The switches and data paths are a general means of specifying information flow and the processing elements serve to represent some arbitrary computational activity.
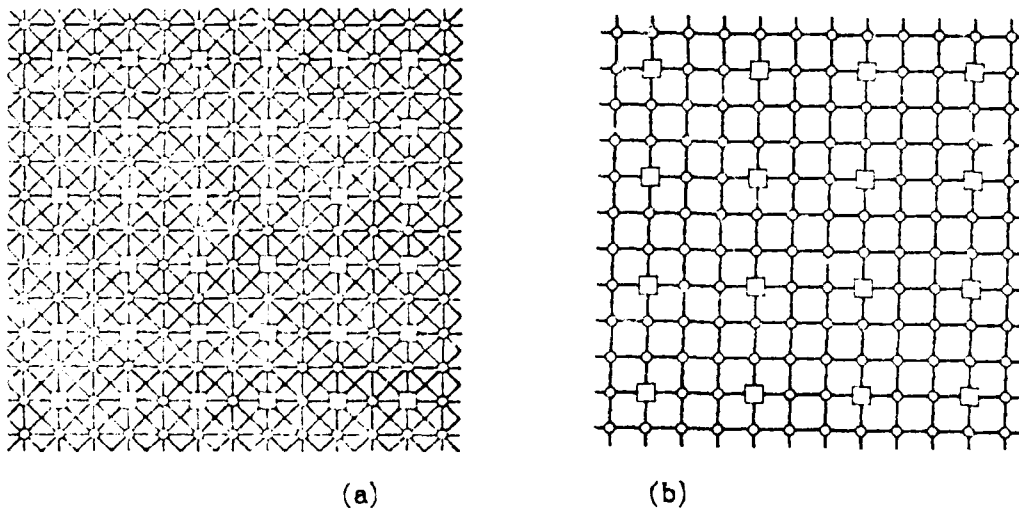


(a)                    (b)

Figure 2.  Two switch lattices.  Circles are switches; squares are processing elements.

Ultimately, when the methodology has been worked through and the design is completed, the switches and data paths will have been removed, the active data paths will have been replaced by wires and the processing elements will have been replaced by specialized circuits for the particular function. But at this point this stylized representation of the components gives the designer a simple, flexible means of simulating the algorithm. The simplicity and flexibility make the revision a less painful process and encourage exploration and experimentation.

As Figure 2 illustrates, switch lattices differ in several respects. Although the designer will choose a lattice suitable for the particular algorithm, it is appropriate to mention the axes of variability. The

degree, $d$, of switches and processing elements refers to the number of data paths incident to the device. Normally, we will have $d=6$ for switches and PEs although a higher degree for PEs may be convenient when there are multiple inputs and outputs. (See below.) In Figure 2(a), $d=6$ and in Figure 2(b), $d=4$.

The corridor width $w$ refers to the number of switches separating two neighboring PEs. (In Figure 2(a), $w=1$; in 2(b), $w=2$.) The more distinct data paths that must pass between two processing elements, the wider the corridor width must be. Since the switches will ultimately be removed, there is no harm in specifying a large corridor width. However, by calling explicit attention to corridor width, we cause the designer to focus on data routing and to appreciate the consequences of haphazard routing on density and packing. Notice that the corridor width is related to the number of distinct data paths passing between two PEs, not to the number of wires in each data path (which is set later).

One programs the switch lattice simulator by giving "configuration settings" for the switches and program text for the PEs. A configuration setting specifies which of the incident data paths a switch is to connect. If no configuration setting is given the data paths are isolated. In the figures we simply draw lines through switches to specify active settings. The program text is given in a conventional sequential programming language that has been extended with facilities to specify timing.*

Returning to our FFT example, we can specify our first embedding. Figure 3 illustrates a direct embedding of the FFT interconnection (Figure 1) in a switch lattice where $w=2$ and $d=8$. Because of the number of data paths crossing from the upper half of the layout to the lower half, a

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*For the Blue CHiP Project's pilot simulator, the language is Pascal.

widtn $w=2$ is required. Notice that the layout is the same for each of the three files.
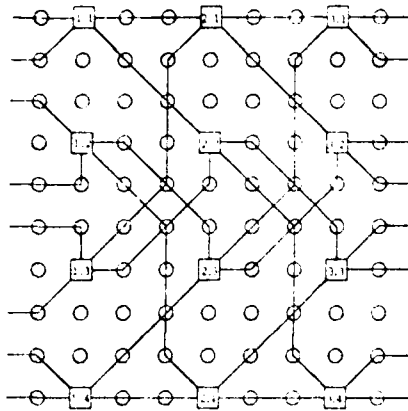


Figure 3. Switch lattice embedding of the FFT.

The execution of the CHiP computer is synchronous, so the development of the PE code is a simple matter. Each PE executes a variant of

```
L:  READ B; READ B'
    C ← B + QB'
    C' ← B - QB'
    WRITE C; WRITE C'
    GOTO L
```

where the variant is determined by which PE ports the variable comes from or goes to. For example, PE 1.1 would execute

```
L:  READ B FROM West; READ B' FROM Southwest
    C ← B + QB'
    C' ← B - QB'
    WRITE C TO East; WRITE C' TO Southeast
    GOTO L
```

PEs with degree greater than eight have their ports numbered.

Although the development of the program is the responsibility of the designer, there are library embeddings available that embody careful analysis and research.

## Assessment and Revision

The next activity in the methodology is to assess the initial design and make appropriate improvements. The goal here is to evaluate how the design can be globally improved before investing any effort in the detailed layout. Obviously, this activity will require a certain amount of judgement and experience.

Our FFT has several favorable characteristics. It has a nearly square aspect ratio (4.3) and has edge-to-edge data flow. The latter property is important in order to reach the bonding pads which are most conveniently located on the perimeter. The main liability of our initial design is the nonlocal data flow, i.e., the presence of long data paths. When the design is laid out, some wires will have to be as long as the side of a PE.

To solve this long data path problem, we observe that to achieve edge-to-edge data flow, it is *not* necessary for the flow to be unidirectional as it is in our initial design. In particular, an alternative strategy is to route the data towards the center of the layout and then back out towards the perimeter. To achieve such an in-and-out data flow, we place the second file ($2 x$) of processing elements in the center of the layout and place the first and third files around the edge. Figure 4 illustrates this layout. The result is a design which still has edge-to-edge data flow and short, local connections. (This particular optimization may not generalize for larger shuffle graph problems, but the concept of in-and-out, edge-to-edge data flow could have wide application.)

The assessment and revision activity is iterated.

In the second design the aspect ratio is now square -- a minor improvement. Unfortunately, the corners of the layout are unused. This

area can be used for bonding pads for the input/output wires of the adja-
cent PEs. It could also be used for other logic depending on how the
design develops. (See below.)

When studying the way data enters and leaves the PEs in Figure 4,
one sees that there are two different processing element geometries. The
external PEs are alike and the internal PEs are alike*. It is obviously
undesirable to have to require two designs for the same function, so we
reprogram the external switches to convert the external PE geometries
to the internal form. (See Figure 5.) This gives one layout form. Furth-
ermore, if we reflect on how this stylized diagram will finally be imple-
mented, it is clear that since the two data paths will probably *exit* from a
PE together, the global data flow will be optimized if (1) they enter the PE
together and (2) these entry and exit points are on opposite corners of a
PE. We take these two conditions as constraints to be carried over to the
next phase of design. If we can accomplish these two in the next phase
we will have a better global organization. If we cannot, we return to this
point to reassess and revise.

### Round Two

The process of programming the CHiP machine has resulted in an
unambiguous specification of the algorithm, a routing of the data flow, a
global layout and, presumably, the development of some test data that
was used when the algorithm was run on the CHiP architecture simulator.
But this first program is not intended to specify the algorithm in great
enough detail for direct VLSI design and layout. In particular, the func-
tional activity of the PEs is probably too complicated at this early stage.

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*The internal PEs are not quite alike -- the (clockwise) meaning of the data paths
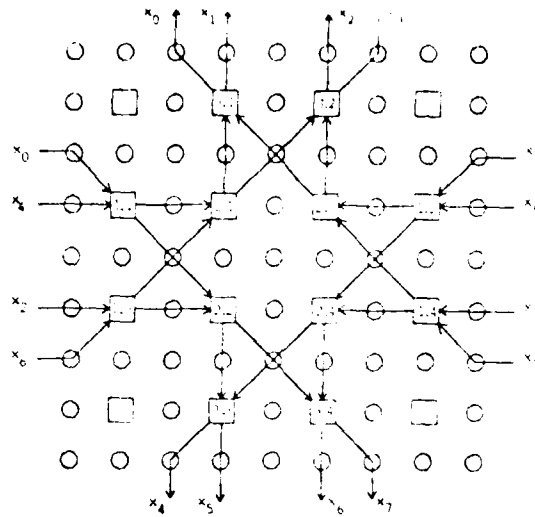differs among them. This will be easily corrected later by a simple wire crossover.

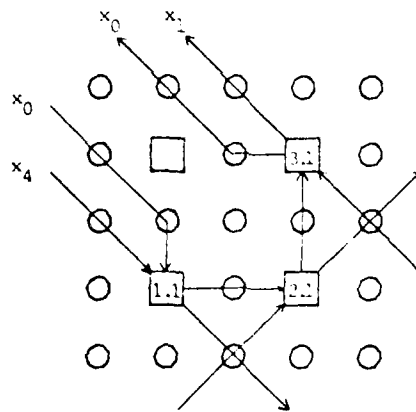Figure 4. A revised FFT embedding with local communication.



Figure 5. A reprogramming of perimeter interconnections.

In our FFT example, the inner product step is such a complicated activity.

So the methodology dictates that we iterate the program-assess-revise cycle until the functional activity of the PEs is sufficiently simple to be directly implemented in VLSI or can be implemented by an available library layout. Since the interconnection and global layout are now

fixed, it is necessary only to implement the specified activity of the PE. This is accomplished by programming the CHiP architecture to implement the algorithm specified by the PE code(s). It is this iterative activity that gives the methodology its hierarchical capability.

During each subsequent round of programming-assessment-revision, it is important to establish that the current CHiP program correctly implements the specification of the previous level. This is a requirement of any top-down design effort, and it is aided here by the previously developed test data. (Notice that the test data may have to have its *form* changed to reflect the changed level of detail. For example, at one level the program can be simulated on words of data while at the next level it might require bit-serial data.)

We return briefly to the FFT example to give a second level of layout. Postulate a linear array of PEs to perform the inner product step based on a pipelined multiplier [7]. The layout will have two serial inputs, $B$ and $B'$, and will produce two serial outputs, $B + QB'$ and $B - QB'$. The coefficient, $Q$, will be stored internally to the layout, although it will be shifted through to form the intermediate products. By our analysis from the previous level, the current layout will receive its input at one corner and must deliver its output to the opposite corner. This suggests a "snaked" arrangement for the linear array of processing elements. (See Figure 6.) Each PE has a input and output the three data values as well as the partial product. The $B$ value is carried along to be available at the end for summing and differencing in the last cell. The control lines could either be broadcast or transmitted sequentially [7] from the control circuit that we will place in the corners of the global design.

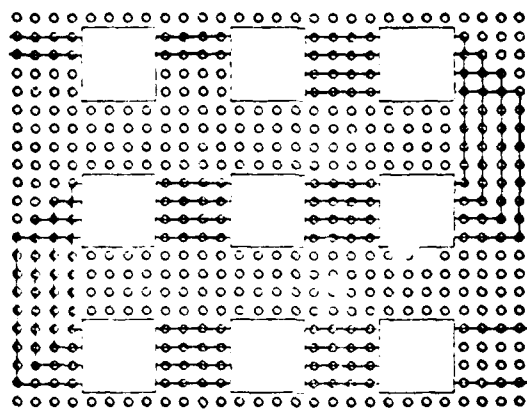As before we should next program the activity of the PEs. This time

Figure 6. A pipelined inner product layout

there will be a few different cells since the multiplier requires a few [7]
and there is a sum/difference cell. Then we embark on another sequence
of assess and revise iterations. Having illustrated how the "opposite
corner" data flow property established at the top level becomes a con-
straint to be implemented at the second level, we forego further detailed
design.

## Design Specialization

The program-assess-revise cycle continues until the processing per-
formed at each PE can be directly implemented as a VLSI design. The
needed cells are either produced or acquired from a library. Then the
design is *specialized*. That is, the VLSI designs replace the PEs in the last
CHiP program layout. The active data paths are replaced by wires and all
of the switches are removed. This result is then used to specialize the
next higher level program, i.e., it replaces the PEs in its predecessor lay-
out, etc. When the activity is completed, our stylized CHiP lattice is gone
and what remains is a completed VLSI design. For our example, see the
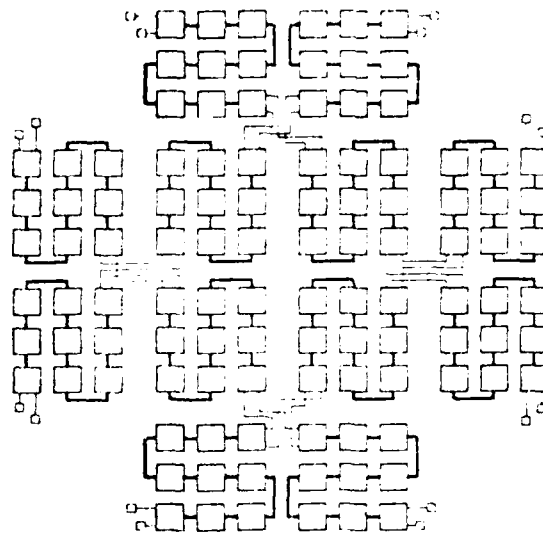schematic in Figure 7.

Figure 7. The specialized layout; the wide spacing is for showing inter-
connections.

Although it is straightforward, the specialization process is not quite
as trivial as just suggested. Its success depends on several conditions.
First, the aspect ratios and cell sizes must be properly controlled during
the design process in order to pack the cells easily. This condition is
easily met as long as the PEs perform closely related operations. In our
running example, the top level cells were identical; the second level cells
were sufficiently similar to justify an assumption of equal size.

Another complication for specialization is power and ground routing.
We recommend the following strategy. Perform the routing prior to spe-
cialization but after all the VLSI cells are designed. At that point it is
known, relatively, where power and ground enter the cells. Then, route
the power and ground wires within each CHiP lattice layout starting at
the *top* level. This permits a convenient top-down routing with the added
advantage of knowing the target sites for the bottom level connections.

A word about simulation. As the program-assess-revise cycle is per-

formed, each program can be simulated in isolation using the data (possi-
bly revised) from the previous level. Moreover, the composit design can
be simulated at each cycle by logically substituting the programs of each
level for the PEs of the previous level. Once the PEs have been replaced
by VLSI cells, however, it is unclear to what extent the design methodol-
ogy can assist in efficient simulation. It is obviously compatible with
hierarchically-based VLSI design rule checking [8] and electrical integrity
checking [9].

## Summary and Discussion

The methodology we have presented focuses on global design issues
of a VLSI implementation - data flow, functional decomposition, geometric
layout of components. If we use '+' to denote 'one or more applications
of', then the CHiP architecture methodology could be described as

$$(program, test \, (assess, revise, test)^+)^+ \, specialize$$

This methodology leads to a design with a shallow hierarchy, making it
most effective for highly regular algorithms such as digital signal pro-
cessing systems.

The CHiP architecture is crucial to the methodology. The switch lat-
tice provides a medium that mirrors raw silicon: it is planar; it has
integrated processing and interconnection facilities; it is described
geometrically; external data is available only at the perimeter. Conse-
quently, programming an algorithm for a CHiP architecture, though rea-
sonably convenient, gives a good approximation to a VLSI layout.

It is this feature, a convenient programming abstraction imposing
VLSI-like constraints, that perhaps most distinguishes the CHiP metho-
dology from others in which the specification form is divorced from the

technology.

## Related Results

There are three points to be made about related research.

First, from our study of configuration settings we have developed a library of efficient embeddings for commonly used interconnection structures. These include single corridor, planar, linear area binary trees [1, 10], toruses with no long data paths [10], shuffle-exchange graphs with narrow corridors, etc. For example, Figure 8 shows a 64 node shuffle-exchange graph embedded in a lattice with $w=1$ and $d=8$. This embedding, due to Paul Morrissett [11] is of interest because, in general, the shuffle-exchange graph requires very wide corridors [6]. In addition, there are general embedding techniques known for common layout problems: the Aleliunas-Rosenberg technique for bending data paths around corners [1], and lacing for maximizing the number of data paths through a region of the graph [10].
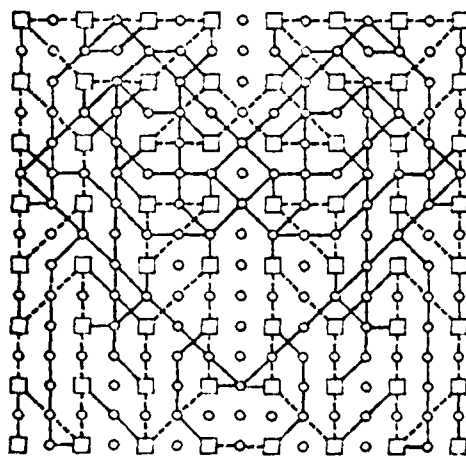


Figure 8. A 64 node shuffle-exchange graph.

Second, we have developed another methodology, called Processor Displacement, that assists the designer in balancing pin limitations with

chip area utilization [12]. This approach to determining the optimal amount of multiplexing is compatible with the CHiP architecture methodology described here.

Third, the CHiP computer is intended to be a general purpose parallel processor and as such it physically implements a switch lattice with programmable switches and microprocessors as processing elements [1]. Were CHiP computers generally available, a signal processing system could be built simply by running the top level program of our methodology. This solution to constructing a special purpose signal processor probably would not have sufficiently good performance to serve most applications. Although easily accomplished, this would be too general a solution for a high performance device. Our methodology on the other hand can lead to high performance but requires much effort. There could be a compromise solution: We are exploring the possibility of semispecialized CHiP computer which would replace the general purpose microprocessor PEs with functional units tailored to a specific application. CORDIC processors are good candidates for these specialized PEs [13].
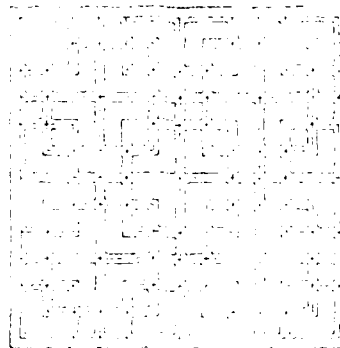
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Type lattice for the "In-Out Bond" lattice class; origin unknown.

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